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Cameras and carcasses: history and current methods

using artificial food falls for the study of deep-water animals

Running title: Deep-water animals at food-falls

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ABSTRACT

Deep-ocean animals remain poorly understood compared to their shallow-water relatives, mainly because of the great cost and difficulty involved in obtaining reliable ecological data. This is a serious issue as exploitation of deep-water resources progresses without sufficient data being available to assess its risks and impacts. First described almost 40 years ago, the use of baited cameras was pioneered by deep-sea biologists and is now a widely used technique for the assessing patterns of animal behavior, abundance and biodiversity. The technique provides a non-destructive and cost-effective means of collecting data, where other techniques such as trawling are difficult or impractical. This review will first describe the evolution of baited camera techniques in deep-sea research from the early deployments, through recent programs to investigate trends in animal distribution with depth, latitude, and ocean basin. In the second section the techniques used for imaging, baiting, and analysis are synthesized, with special consideration for the modeling techniques used in assessing animal abundance and biomass.

ASFA keywords: deep-water, scavengers, marine technology, underwater cameras, literature review, fisheries, stock assessment, environmental assessment
INTRODUCTION

Baited camera deployment is a deceptively simple technique for the study of the marine environment. Simple because at its most basic level it requires only a time-lapse camera and bait held in its field of view, but deceptive because the view of the marine environment is small and the events seen are artificial. The great advantage of baited systems is that a deployment at a single site aggregates animals from a large distance around it, allowing the animals to be identified, counted, and measured. Diverse and fascinating deep-ocean scavenger communities have been revealed by such cameras and technical and scientific advances continue to improve their usefulness. The technical improvements that allow more effective deep-water research have progressed alongside similar developments in the oil and gas, and fishing industries, bringing the threat of overfishing and habitat destruction to deep-water communities. With these dangers and the discovery of fragile habitats such as cold water coral reefs, effective deep-ocean survey and monitoring tools will become increasingly necessary.

The authors have used baited cameras for much of their work, collecting ecological, behavioral, and physiological data and much of the material presented is from these projects and those of our immediate collaborators. It is the aim of this review to highlight the key historical advances in baited camera research and describe some of the discoveries made in baited camera surveys worldwide. This review will also illustrate the general advantages and disadvantages of baited cameras and then focus on different approaches to imaging, baiting and data interpretation.
Baited cameras have now been deployed worldwide, to the greatest depths of the world ocean, but with a bias towards the US and European ocean margins. From the first baited camera experiments the majority of studies have been undertaken with systems mounted on free-falling autonomous vehicles (also known as landers, or pop-up vehicles). These vehicles consist of a frame, on which the camera system is mounted, and a buoyancy unit. The system is ballasted, usually with steel scrap, to make it negatively buoyant. The lander is then deployed by dropping it from the crane or A-frame of a ship, sinks to the seafloor and takes photographs or video at pre-set intervals. At the end of the experiment the ballast is dropped by the lander, usually on receipt of an acoustic command from the surface, and the lander is brought to the surface by the buoyancy unit.

Camera and current meter data are then retrieved from the lander, batteries are recharged or replaced, and the lander is prepared with new ballast and bait for the next deployment. The use and advantages of autonomous vehicles have been reviewed by Priede and Bagley (2000) and Bagley et al (2004). These authors particularly highlighted the great time and cost savings associated with the use of landers, allowing the deploying vessel to do other work while the lander is in the water (Table 1). In some applications lander systems can be left in situ for months or even years. More recently, a number of other studies have been conducted by sinking carcasses and periodically visiting them with Remotely Operated Vehicles (ROVs) or submersibles (Smith 1985), by manually placing camera systems and bait on the seafloor using these vehicles (Widder et al. 2005), or by baiting the ROV itself (Tamburri et al. 2000, Trenkel et al. 2004). The variety of vehicles
used to deploy cameras, and the range of buoyancy, ballast and release mechanisms is
great and worthy of a review in itself (e.g. Jamieson 2004). This paper, however,
concentrates on scientific payloads, analyses, and the results achieved. A selection of key
lander systems and experiments are highlighted in Table 2.

First steps, Isaacs and the “Monster Camera”

The first photographic lander was developed by Ewing and co-workers in the 1940s
(Described in Ewing et al. 1967), and was used primarily for the study of seabed features
such as sand ripples. The first deep-sea baited camera was developed by Isaacs (1969) at
Scripps Institution of Oceanography (University of California, San Diego). Known as the
“Monster Camera” (Fig. 1), this 7000 m rated lander system was deployed in the North
Pacific at depths of up to 5835 m (Heezen & Hollister 1971, Dayton & Hessler 1972).
Later surveys in the Pacific, Indian, and Southern Oceans demonstrated the widespread
presence of an abundant and active scavenging fauna, with fish arriving at the bait in less
than 30 minutes in most deployments (Isaacs & Schwartzlose 1975). Amongst the
animals observed off Baja California were a sleeper shark at 2039 m (Heezen & Hollister
1971) and sablefish, grenadiers, and hagfish at 1400 m (Isaacs 1969). Isaacs (1969)
suggested that some apparently Arctic species, such as sleeper sharks and sablefish, were
really deep-water animals which merely “outcrop” at high latitude where cold water is
close to the surface. Having shown evidence that deep-sea scavengers were abundant,
Isaacs and Schwartzlose (1975) speculated that deep-ocean scavengers use odor plumes
to find bait, and noted that differences in overlying productivity affected both the
numbers of animals attracted and their apparent level of hunger and interest in the bait.
The observation of large numbers of active scavengers contributed to the ongoing controversy over the role of habitat complexity in supporting the observed diversity of deep-ocean species (Dayton & Hessler 1972, Grassle & Sanders 1973). Controversy on this matter raged for years, with various authors presenting contrary findings about the abundance and significance of carrion items as part of a habitat mosaic, and disagreeing over the significance of scavengers in deep-ocean habitats (Reviewed in Stockton & DeLaca 1982). Baited cameras are one of the few ways to study deep-water scavengers, as natural food falls in the deep-ocean are seldom seen (Stockton & DeLaca 1982). Wilson and Smith (1984) made several important contributions to understanding the role of scavengers by using the Free Vehicle Video (FVV) system to study the behavior of foraging abyssal grenadiers. Later, a modified version of this lander was used to make detailed measurements of the swimming speeds of scavenging amphipods (Wilson & Smith 1984, Laver et al. 1985). These studies provided key insights into the foraging methods of deep-ocean scavengers and led to first detailed descriptions of proposed energetic strategies. These, and following, studies quickly showed that deep-water scavengers possessed particular energetic characteristics, in particular low routine metabolic rates (Seibel & Drazen in press). Our understanding of deep-water animal energetics remains poor, and is a significant limitation to modeling their foraging behavior. As well as collecting these biological data, Wilson and Smith (1984) also made the first explicit link between the arrival rates of animals at cameras and the numbers of those same species caught by trawls in similar locations.
The search for spatial and temporal patterns

Researchers in the UK began two major series of baited camera experiments which continue to widen the spatial range covered. The main areas of investigation have been to determine how depth and overlying productivity affect community composition, and how scavenger communities differ between ocean basins.

The landers used were a baited version of the Institute for Oceanographic Sciences Bathysnap system (Lampitt & Burnham 1983), and the Acoustic Tracking Experiment (ATEX) (Priede & Smith 1986). Bathysnap is a “free-fall camera and current meter system” and differed from many of the systems that preceded it by resting directly on the seafloor, with the camera facing outwards at a downward angle. Usually deployed as an unbaited time lapse photography system, the history of Bathysnap has been reviewed by Bett (2003). The initial baited (or Bathysnack) experiment, at 4009 m in the North East Atlantic, used the flesh of abyssal grenadiers (*Coryphaenoides armatus*) caught at the same depth. The bait was wrapped in fine cotton gauze, and attracted amphipods and fishes (but not large grenadiers) (Lampitt et al. 1983). A key finding was that changes in current direction and velocity had powerful effects on the numbers of animals seen at the bait, as Wilson and Smith (1984) observed using the FVV in the Pacific.

The first ATEX lander consisted of the FVV fitted with an acoustic tracking module and was deployed in the North Pacific in 1985 (Priede & Smith 1986). ATEX, and the subsequent AUDOS and RObust BIOdiversity (ROBIO) landers (Fig. 2), have since been deployed worldwide to depths of up to 5900 m. Members of this family of vehicles
consist of a time-lapse stills or video camera facing downwards from a frame moored 2 m above the seafloor, kept in tension by the lander’s buoyancy (Fig. 2). The majority of ATEX and AUDOS models included an acoustic system capable of tracking ingestible transponders. These transponders were hidden in bait packages, and once eaten, allowed the subsequent movements of the fish to be recorded at pre-selected time intervals (usually each minute) to a range of 500 m (Bagley et al. 1994). Unlike previous landers, the ATEX was baited with a single fish carcass, which was open to the scavengers. As the bait was consumed, the scavengers dispersed, allowing the processes involved in optimal foraging to be studied in the deep-ocean for the first time. Arrival rates, staying times, and swimming speeds were determined for a range of scavenging fishes, allowing greatly-improved estimates of scavenger abundance to be made. A key finding was that abyssal grenadiers appeared to move slowly but continuously, with a bias towards cross-current movement, and often left the bait while some of it remained unconsumed (Priede et al. 1991). This finding linked to Charnov’s (1976) theories on optimal foraging, which showed that animals should leave a food patch once feeding opportunity at the patch dropped below the average level for the environment as a whole. A key question was whether differences in abyssal scavenger staying time could be linked to differences in the surface productivity of the overlying waters.

**Latitude and surface productivity.** The great majority of primary productivity in the ocean occurs close to the surface, which in turn provides food to the underlying deep-water habitats. Spatial variation in surface productivity directly influences the amount of food reaching the seafloor as particulate organic matter (Smith et al. 1997b), and
potentially affects the amount of carrion produced by the shallow-water nekton populations. When deployed along a transect in the North Atlantic, bathysnap revealed a fish-dominated system on the Porcupine Abyssal Plain (southwest of Ireland) with apparent fish abundance and size decreasing to the Madeira Abyssal Plain in the south (Merrett 1987). These findings and trawl data led to the theory of a zoogeographic divide at 40ºN. This theory stated that there was a lower biomass, consisting of small fish species, in the sub-tropics where productivity was lower and more continuous, compared to the more productive and seasonal temperate zone (Merrett 1987). When AUDOS was deployed in the abyssal North East Atlantic it recorded a wide range of scavenging species, including the grenadier *C. armatus*, the eel *Histiobranchus bathybius*, and the ophidiids *Spectrunculus grandis* and *Barathrites* sp. (Armstrong et al. 1992). Using the AUDOS tracking data, abundance estimates were made for the Porcupine Abyssal Plain (PAP; 167 grenadiers·km\(^{-2}\) and 180 synaphobranchid eels·km\(^{-2}\)), and Madeira Abyssal Plain (MAP; 8 grenadiers·km\(^{-2}\) and 7 synaphobranchid eels·km\(^{-2}\)). As predicted by optimal foraging theory, staying times were longer at the oligotrophic MAP. These findings supported the zoogeographic divide hypothesis, but baited camera deployments and tagging studies further south (Cape Verde Abyssal Plain, 17ºN) found elevated populations of grenadiers (Henriques et al. (2002). These studies showed that the lower abundances of *C. armatus* off Madeira corresponded with lower surface productivity, but that the seasonal upwelling system above the Cape Verde Abyssal Plain was capable of supporting large grenadiers. The surface productivity of an ecosystem could therefore be linked to the characteristics of its deep-water scavenging fauna.
**Depth.** It has long been known that community composition changes with depth, with species being found in specific depth zones (Grassle et al. 1975). Baited camera experiments confirmed trawl data showing distinct zonation in deep-sea fishes (Fig. 3). In the temperate North-East Atlantic, baited camera data were dominated by observations of the eel *Synaphobranchus kaupii* on the upper slope (to around 1200 m), which were then replaced by morid cods (*Antimora rostrata*), until at about 2000 m when they were replaced by the abyssal grenadier (*C. armatus*) (Armstrong et al. 1992, Priede & Merrett 1996, Collins et al. 1999a). Collins et al. (2005) combined trawl and baited camera data to investigate patterns in the deep-sea fish community with depth. These analyses showed that, while both biomass and abundance of fishes fell with increasing depth, patterns in body size differed greatly between scavenging and non-scavenging fishes, with the scavengers (those species seen at baited cameras) increasing in average mass with depth. This was explained by a mathematical model of fish foraging which showed that the optimum body size for fishes depended on characteristics of the meals they utilized. Scavengers used larger but less frequent food items and larger size provided scavengers with the endurance necessary to travel between sporadic feeding opportunities. Differences in energetic strategy between sharks and bony fishes may also explain differences in the depth distributions of Osteichthyan (bony) and Chondrichthyan fishes (sharks, rays, and chimaeras). To investigate this phenomenon Priede et al (2006) collated data for 166 baited camera deployments in the Pacific, Atlantic, and Southern Oceans, Mediterranean and Arabian seas. These data showed that the entire class Chondrichthyes is confined to waters less than 3000 m deep. All species in this class are
vulnerable to the over fishing which is decimating shark populations (Myers & Worm 2005).

At the extreme end of the depth range, baited cameras have been used in the ocean trenches, to depths in excess of 10 km. The deepest recordings of fish were of grenadiers (*Coryphaenoides yaquinae*) at 5900 m (Priede et al. 1990) and brotulids at 5861 m (Hessler et al. 1978) in the North and South Pacific respectively. Deeper deployments observe only scavenging crustaceans, but often in great numbers (Birstein & Vinogradov 1955, Beliaev 1989). The true depth limits of fish distribution are not yet clear, and the mechanisms controlling the distributions of fishes are not known as a wide range of physical (light, pressure, temperature) and ecological variables (food availability, numbers of predators) co-vary with depth. Various ecological and physiological hypotheses have been erected, but none completely explains the data (Priede et al. 2006).

**Comparing abyssal basins.** The majority of abyssal (>2000 m) baited camera experiments have been undertaken in the North Pacific and North Atlantic Oceans. In both of these oceans the abyssal plain fish community is dominated by large grenadiers. In the temperate Atlantic the plains species is *C. armatus*, while in the Pacific this species is confined to the lower reaches of the ocean margins and the plains are dominated by *C. yaquinae* (Wilson & Waples 1983). The Atlantic temperate fauna is well characterized and found consistently across a wide area, but the northern and eastern extensions of this ocean are quite different. Jones et al (2003) described the scavenging fauna of the
Mediterranean sea, demonstrating that the large grenadiers and amphipods that dominate scavenging fauna of the oceanic abyss are absent at similar depths in this enclosed sea. The abyssal scavenging fauna is numerically dominated by a shrimp, *Acanthephyra eximia* (Jones et al. 2003), which can be found around hydrothermal vents in the Atlantic (Desbruyères et al. 2001). The much greater water temperatures at depth, shorter time that the Mediterranean abyss has been habitable, and the shallow sill (<300 msw) which separates this sea from the Atlantic are all possibly responsible for preventing the entry of the “normal” oceanic fauna. To the north, above the Arctic circle, grenadiers are also absent, and the abyssal scavenging fauna is dominated by amphipods (Klages et al. 2001) and higher up the slope the main scavenging fish are zoarcids (Premke et al. 2003). Lower temperatures in the Arctic might be a factor, but it is interesting to note that in the abyssal Arabian Sea zoarcids are also among the dominant scavenging fish species seen by baited cameras and large grenadiers are very rare (Janßen et al. 2000). Like the Atlantic, the southern Indian Ocean the abyssal fish community appears to be dominated by large *C. armatus*. (King 2006).

**Temporal patterns.** Spatial patterns have been extensively examined, but temporal patterns are extremely poorly characterized. Seasonal comparisons using acoustic tracking (Priede et al. 1994b) and video analysis (Priede et al. 2003) showed changing levels of swimming activity in abyssal fishes, but these could also have been caused by interannual changes in nutritional state (Drazen 2002). Changes in length frequency distribution indicated that migrations by grenadiers may have occurred (Smith et al. 1997a, Priede et al. 2003), but confirming this will require much more data.
PART 2 - TECHNOLOGY FOR SURVEY AND SCIENTIFIC STUDIES

While deployment methods differ, all systems require a camera, light, and a means of attracting animals. The choice of each item depends on the specific aims of the deployments (e.g. from survey to behavioral study), and how well characterized the fauna is prior to deployment.

Camera systems

There are many options to be considered including the sizes and angles of the fields of view, type of lighting, and between video and still photography. The Bathysnap and “Eye In The Sea” (Widder et al. 2005) vehicles used oblique photography, providing a larger field of view, and good side views of the animals, making them potentially easier to identify than in top-down images. One disadvantage of this technique is that from a single camera it is impossible to estimate the sizes of animals which are not touching the seafloor (animals on the bottom can be sized using a “Canadian grid” superimposed on the image). Oblique angled photography is mainly used for unbaited deep-sea photography, where most of the animals of interest are on the seafloor (Kaufmann & Smith 1997, Bett et al. 2001). One other potential disadvantage of baiting an obliquely-angled camera is that the results obtained may be affected if the camera’s supporting structure is touching the seafloor. Jamieson et al (2006) recently described how fish often ignore the bait and investigate lander frames, potentially making them invisible to the camera for long periods of time. For this reason Jamieson et al (2006) recommended
that lander or mooring parts coming close to the seabed should be within the field of view of the camera.

The “monster camera” used a downward-looking camera, tethered off the seafloor to maximize the field of view. This system was adopted in the design of the FVV (and its descendants ATEX, AUDOS, and ROBIO), using a measured scale bar close the seafloor. By using this reference length and calculating the range of benthopelagic animals from the position of their shadows on the seafloor, the lengths of animals can be calculated from a single camera, even when they are not in contact with the seafloor. However, the accuracy of the estimates falls dramatically as the animals get further from the seabed and the reference scale (N.J. King and D.L.Watson, unpublished data). With a downward-facing camera there is clearly a trade-off between the seafloor area visible and the amount of detail available in the images, usually determined by the camera’s range from the seafloor. Placing the camera closer and using a wide-angle lens is an attractive option but causes measurement artifacts if lengths and swimming speeds are to be determined from images or video sequences.

Most baited camera deployments undertaken for survey and census have used stills cameras, mainly because the increased resolution available from film made species identification easier. However, recordings of swimming movement from video can also be used when classifying organisms. Video has been used by several teams to collect information on locomotory performance and behavior in deep-sea animals. One recent example is the “Sprint” lander, which used video in conjunction with an electrical
stimulator to elicit burst swimming performances from fish and shrimps attracted to bait, allowing their muscle power output to be estimated (Bailey et al. 2003). Collins et al. (1999a) used video data, alongside acoustic tracking to show how fish activity levels are reduced at greater depths, probably as a consequence of lower food availability.

Current high-resolution, color video cameras, require relatively large amounts of light. For example the Sprint lander used twin 75 W incandescent lamps (Bailey et al. 2003). Long periods of illumination at such light intensities sometimes affect the behavior of the animals that the camera is there to observe. The bathyal eel *S. kaupii* (Bailey et al. 2005) slowly moved away from the camera field of view when lit, but the abyssal grenadier *C. armatus* did not avoid the lights used to illuminate it (Wilson & Smith 1984). Recent studies suggest that *S. kaupii* interacts with bioluminescent ostracods during scavenging (Heger et al. in press), and reacting to their light may be a natural behavior for these fishes. Other bathyal fishes such as toothfish also react to the lights of video landers (Collins et al. 1999b), and like the eels, this may be because light has some ecological relevance to this species, perhaps during a shallower-living point in their life cycle.

One solution to the lighting problem is to use a high-frequency acoustic camera, to which the fishes should be completely oblivious, but under most conditions the image quality and field of view are not as good as those of optical cameras (Rose et al. 2005). More conventional active sonars provide much greater fields of view (Smith et al. 1989b), but are currently best used in conjunction with cameras (Premke et al. 2003). Camera systems using red light illumination appear to disturb fish less than those using white
light, resulting in greater numbers of scavenging animals, while providing sufficient light for video recording (Widder et al. 2005).

4 Baits and other attractants

After setting up all the high-tech hardware the camera must be baited. This is a critically important part of the procedure, as small details of the size, type, and configuration of the bait affect the results obtained. The most common baits are shallow-water fishes, either in a leaky container or open to the scavengers. In either case scavenging animals are attracted by the production of an odor plume which stretches downstream of the baited camera. This is a very cheap and effective means of attracting animals to the camera from a large area, but suffers from some significant disadvantages. The baits used are not standardized between research groups, making comparison of results difficult, as the rate of odor release, and the length of time that the bait lasts depends completely on the type of fish used (Lampitt et al. 1983) and how it is prepared (homogenate, fillets, whole). The early experiments tended towards enclosed baits, but following Priede and Smith (1986) many teams now use open baits to mimic small natural food falls. With such open baits there is a feedback process between the numbers and sizes of the scavengers attracted and the length of time that the bait remains attractive (Collins et al. 2002). This probably makes the results obtained less consistent between deployments and details of how the bait is attached to the camera system greatly affect how long it remains visible. Bait mixes enclosed in a mesh container or released by a pump are probably more consistent between deployments than whole fish, but the form and duration of the feeding frenzy produced cannot mimic events at a natural carrion fall. Monterey Bay Aquarium
Research Institute researchers used liquidized fish, emitted by a pump, to attract mobile animals in an experiment to test the effects of deep-ocean carbon sequestration on deep-living animals (Tamburri et al. 2000). This bait was so effective that the fish remained present even when the pH of the water around the bait source was reduced from 7.6 to 5.6 by CO₂ hydrate pumped from the ROV. While most researchers use fish in some form as bait, plant remains have also been used. Traps baited only with sea grass and seaweed captured amphipods at depths of 10 and 500 m off the Bahamas (Lawson et al. 1993).

Changing the type and configuration of the bait affects both the numbers of animals seen, and the species observed. The Bathysnap system observed *Pachycara bulbiceps*, which was not observed at the same locations by Armstrong et al (1992), but did not observe *C. armatus*, the dominant fish scavenger at that depth. Bathysnap has always used enclosed baits and tends to be deployed for longer durations than the AUDOS lander with its open bait (usually a single Atlantic mackerel, *Scomber scombrus*). The greater persistence of the protected bait allows zoarcids to arrive and exhibit the “roosting” behavior for which they are now well known (Witte 1999, Janßen et al. 2000, Kemp et al. 2006).

One disadvantage of small, unprotected baits is that the experiment is over very quickly (often within hours of lander touchdown), but in a recent development Kemp at al. (in press) deployed a periodic bait-release system during a long-term lander experiment on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge. The periodic bait-release contained several individual fish carcasses in sealed tubes, which were released singly at pre-determined intervals. The system produced replicate baited experiments, with grenadier fishes apparently leaving
the lander after feeding and being attracted when new bait was released. The sealing of
the bait within the tubes, and the deactivation of surface-dwelling microorganisms by the
environmental pressure, appeared sufficient to retain the freshness of the bait between
bait releases. This system has great potential for the study of scavenging animals during
periods when ship operations are impractical, such as during winter at higher latitudes.

The largest baits used on landers are the carcasses of small marine mammals (Jones 1999,
Kemp et al. 2006), which attract very large numbers of scavenging fishes and
invertebrates for periods of several weeks. Such studies have provided fascinating
information on deep-water ecology and in particular the interactions between species.
For example Kemp et al (2006) showed that changes in numbers of crabs feeding on the
carcass of a porpoise fluctuated violently, but the drops in crab numbers were associated
with the presence of predatory octopods. There have been several studies of large marine
mammal carcasses, made by sinking them into deep water with large weights and then
visiting them periodically with ROVs and submersibles (Smith & Baco 2003). The
succession of animals at whale carcasses, began with a “mobile scavenger” phase, similar
to that seen at baited landers, ending with a “reef” stage when the nutritional content of
the skeleton has been exhausted by sulphophilic organisms and the bones were
colonized by suspension feeders (Smith & Baco 2003). The observation of
chemoautotrophs feeding at whale carcasses led to the “stepping stone” theory, which
suggested that whale carcasses might provide the necessary habitat to support the
dispersal of vent animals from one hydrothermal fluid source to the next (Smith et al.
1989a).
The above techniques attract animals using an odor plume, and perhaps also with an acoustic/mechanoreceptor signal from the impact of the carcass on the seafloor (Klages et al. 2002, Premke et al. 2003). The only alternative artificial attractant of which the authors are aware is the “electronic jellyfish” developed by Widder and her co-workers (2005). The “jellyfish” consists of a computer-controlled array of white LEDs which produces moving patterns of light similar to those produced by a distressed jellyfish. It appears that this system does attract the attention of predators near the lander, but the usefulness of this system as a sole means of attracting animals to a camera has not yet been established. As noted above, scavengers may also utilize mechanoreception to detect the arrival of carrion on the seafloor, but there has been little experimental testing of this in situ.

In general terms, video cameras and open, natural, baits have advantages for behavioral studies, particularly using red light illumination. High resolution digital stills cameras and enclosed (or at least very standardized) baits are probably better for census purposes, especially in areas where the fauna has not been characterized by previous photographic or capture methods (King et al. 2006).

Interpretation of baited camera data

Many systems exist for photographing and videoing the animals attracted to baited cameras, but how much information can be gleaned from the small area imaged? Baited cameras are part of a suite of techniques available to deep-sea researchers (see Table 1),
but may often be the most practicable survey method. In environments such as reefs, where trawling would be unacceptably damaging, deployment of baited cameras may still be possible. Lander deployments also require less ship time and equipment than trawling, ROV or submersible use, especially at abyssal depths. It is important then that the distribution patterns and abundance estimates produced by baited cameras are comparable to those from other methods, and that any systematic differences in the results obtained should be known.

Species composition. At the simplest level, determination of species presence can be achieved relatively easily and this work forms the basis of the comparisons between abyssal basins presented above. It may sometimes be difficult to make good species identifications from the top-down images collected by baited camera systems (identification books seldom show a dorsal view), and careful morphometric measurements from the images may be required to discriminate anatomically similar species (King 2006). This problem was first noted by Barnes (1955), but the deep-sea implementation of the baited stereo-camera techniques used by fisheries scientists (Cappo et al. 2004) is a potential solution. Alternatively, voucher specimens for identification can be obtained by trawling (if possible) or the deployment of baited traps or hooks.

Comparisons of the species lists generated by baited camera and trawl censuses often differ greatly, as baited cameras usually only attract scavengers. In the NE Atlantic only 18 species were attracted to bait compared with 71 species within trawls (Priede et al. 1994a, Priede & Merrett 1996). A recent survey of demersal fish species on the Mid-
Atlantic Ridge also observed 22 species at baited landers, 40 species on a series of thousands of baited long line hooks, and 80 species in Campelen trawls (King et al. 2006, Fossen et al. in press, submitted). In a recent global comparison, more than twice as many species were found at any depth with otter trawls (OTSBs) than with baited cameras (Priede et al. 2006).

Calculating animal abundance and biomass. A more significant challenge than determining that a species is present is to estimate the true abundances of that species in the wider environment. The number of animals at the bait changes continuously during the deployment (Fig. 4), often resulting in a feeding frenzy of fish and crustaceans filling the camera field of view (Fig. 3). Interpreting these data requires information or assumptions about the sensory abilities and foraging method of the animals, and the behavior and area of influence of the odor plume after it has left the camera system.

The scenario used in the present generation of models is that the odor is carried downstream by the current and either reaches a stationary animal, or that animal swims into the odor plume while actively searching for food (Priede & Merrett 1996, Bailey & Priede 2002). The length and spread of the odor plume (and thus the number of animals which it contacts) are determined by the current velocity (and so a current meter is usually fitted to the lander). Upon contacting the odor, rheotaxis is triggered, and animals use the odor plume gradient to stay within the plume until they reach the baited area. They then locate the bait, feed until the bait is either consumed, or leave sooner if they estimate that better feeding opportunities exist elsewhere (Charnov 1976).
major differences between species in their tendency to remain in the vicinity of baits and it is very difficult to determine individual staying times unless acoustic tagging is used, or a fish has an unusual distinguishing feature such as a prominent ectoparasite. The number of animals at any one time therefore depends on the current velocity, movement speeds of the animals (which may also be affected by current velocity), and how long the animal stays at the bait (which is determined by both its feeding rate, the actions of other animals, the bait characteristics, and the number of other feeding opportunities).

The earliest abundance calculation model was a “sit and wait” model for crabs, developed by Sainte-Marie & Hargrave (1987), and subsequently developed by Collins and co-workers (2002). This latter model used the arrival rate and estimates of effective plume area to estimate abundance from the arrivals of many animals and is therefore a very robust measure. These models assume Gaussian odor plume dispersal, that every individual of the focal species responds similarly to the odor of the bait and that all the animals attracted remain at the bait throughout the recording. Priede et al (1990) proposed a simple model for the calculation of fish abundances based on their first arrival time, and allowing for the dispersal of fish after feeding (Fig. 4C). The model was easy to implement and produced abundance estimates which were close to those of otter trawls done at the same locations (Priede & Merrett 1996). This model is the basis of all the abundance estimates for AUDOS and ROBIO deployments described in this review. In an effort to develop models which described the data more accurately Bailey and Priede (2002) developed models which allowed for “sit and wait”, “cross current foraging”, and “drifting” behavior patterns. Although the newer models appeared
qualitatively to mimic “real” deployment data more closely, the greatly-increased
difficulty of using them for abundance estimates cannot be justified on the basis of the
available field data. Results from this model are shown in Fig 5B, comparing abundance
estimates from a towed camera sled to those from the Sprint video lander. Careful field
trials, and a statistical analysis of the model predictions will be required to determine
which models are the most appropriate for the analysis of baited camera data.

Once abundances have been estimated scavenger biomass can be calculated, using animal
dimensions and allometric relationships. In comparison with trawl data in the NE
Atlantic, landers sampled a more limited size range, not fully representing juveniles and
very large specimens of *C. armatus*. Noting this difference in size frequency led to the
discovery that brain morphology changes throughout life in *C. armatus* as its niche
changes ontogenetically (Wagner 2003).

**Data gaps**

There are significant gaps in our understanding of both odor plume and animal foraging
behavior. For instance we know little about the odor sensitivity of deep-sea animals, or
how the odor plume disperses, especially in rough terrain such as reefs and canyons (Fig.
5C). While the AUDOS tracking system has provided much useful behavioral
information, this data could only be collected after the animal had fed (and eaten the
transponder) and therefore could not describe the animals’ previous actions (e.g. its
reaction to the plume). At this time we lack critical information on energetic strategies,
such as which animals remain stationary on the seafloor until contacted by an odor plume
(Wilson and Smith’s (1984) “sit and wait” strategy), and which animals search across currents as other authors suggested (Barnes 1955, Priede et al. 1991). Basic sensitivity analyses have shown how abundance estimates are greatly affected by assumptions concerning an animal’s foraging method (Bailey & Priede 2002) and swimming speed (Yau et al. 2000), so some of these data gaps will need to be filled if we are to have great confidence in lander abundance estimates.

**SUMMARY**

Baited cameras gave us our first view of a diverse, abundant, and active scavenging fauna in the dark ocean abyss and in many cases deploying baited cameras is still one of the most effective ways of obtaining biological information from deep water. Worldwide surveys have shown patterns in scavenger behavior, abundance, and diversity with latitude, depth, and between oceans. Despite long experience in the use of these camera systems, many data gaps remain, which make interpreting the images obtained more difficult. The choice of camera system and bait, and the amount of background information available about the environment and the focal species, make a great deal of difference to the success of the data interpretation. All survey techniques have assumptions. The avoidance and attraction effects of moving survey gears such as trawls, camera sleds and ROVs are poorly-known for deep-sea animals, affecting their effective search area in much the same way that errors are caused in baited camera surveys (Trenkel et al. 2004). Baited cameras have a long history, and with care their deployment provides an efficient means of studying the distribution, behavior and abundance of deep-sea animals.
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Table 1. Examples of the advantages and disadvantages of various gears for the assessment of animal biodiversity, abundance and biomass in benthic deep-water systems.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey gear</th>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baited camera</td>
<td>Small sea time requirement for long observation. Deployment and recovery possible from smaller vessels, with non-specialist crews and equipment. Provides behavioral data on scavengers. Relatively non-destructive.</td>
<td>Lack of standardization. Many assumptions in abundance estimates. Some taxa/size ranges do not come to bait. Animals may be difficult to identify to species from images. Expensive to build equipment. Relatively high chance of loss of equipment. Weight of animals cannot be determined directly, and require length/weight relationships from captured specimens.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bottom trawling</td>
<td>Obtains voucher specimens. Abundance and biomass estimates relatively simple. Historical datasets available for comparison.</td>
<td>Destructive. Time on bottom difficult to determine at depth, making abundance estimates less precise. On rougher ground some nets fish poorly or will be damaged. Ship cannot do other work while fishing. Net avoidance varies between net types and taxa. Few ships and individuals have the ability to trawl to abyssal depths.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROV/submersible survey</td>
<td>Some ability to obtain voucher specimens. High-quality video and stills cameras available.</td>
<td>Ship cannot do other work while dive underway. Camera avoidance varies between taxa. Field of view and angle of line of sight vary between and during surveys.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camera sled survey</td>
<td>Highly standardized results. Easy to tell whether camera was on the bottom. Relatively non-destructive.</td>
<td>Ship cannot do other work while tow underway. Camera avoidance varies between taxa. Difficult to estimate sizes of animals which are not on the bottom, unless stereo cameras are used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>System name</td>
<td>Location(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986-2006</td>
<td>Acoustic Tracking Experiment (ATEX) and Aberdeen University Deep Ocean Submersible (AUDOS), Robust Biodiversity lander (ROBIO)</td>
<td>North Atlantic and North Pacific Southern Indian Ocean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978, 1989</td>
<td>“autonomous instrument carriers” lowered by wire</td>
<td>Philippine, Chile and Mariana Trenches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998, 2001-6</td>
<td>Large Abyssal Food Fall (LAFF) and Deep-Ocean Benthic Observer (DOBO) landers</td>
<td>North Atlantic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Eye in the sea</td>
<td>Gulf of Mexico</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figures

Figure 1. The Monster Camera (photo courtesy of Scripps Institution of Oceanography Library). In this image the camera housing is inverted at bottom right, and strobe at top left. The system was deployed with the camera facing down, towards a perforated metal can containing the bait.
Figure 2 The ROBIO lander, the latest version of the ATEX/AUDOS family of baited landers, being deployed in tethered mode; A) Photograph of ROBIO being deployed on the MAR; B) diagrammatic representation (AutoCAD) of ROBIO in tethered mode. The lander consists of a grade-2 titanium frame with a digital camera (1), flash unit (2), acoustic releases (3), current meter (4; in these images a Sensortek current meter), battery housing and rechargeable battery, and 2 m wire stop with bait, reference cross and ballast (8). The link with the mooring line (6) and quick release line are visible (7) in Fig 2A. The dashed lines in Fig 2B indicate the field of view of the camera.
Figure 3. Images collected by the ROBIO baited camera system on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge, July 2004. The fishes photographed are the dominant scavenging vertebrates in their respective depth zones. Reference bars are marked in 10 cm increments, bait is a single Atlantic mackerel. Identifications are based on morphometric measurements from the images, and using specimens trawled from nearby areas. A) eels, *Synaphobranchus* sp. at 1569 m, 42° 50'N, 29° 29'W, B) morid *Antimora rostrata* (black) and grenadiers *Coryphaenoides armatus* (gray) at 2355 m, 53° 17' N, 35° 30' W. C) *C. armatus* at 3346 m, 51° 34'N, 31° 02' W. Note the larger size of the grenadiers in this abyssal image.
Figure 4 Numbers of fish within view of the camera over time after touchdown at 911 m, Nazaré Canyon, Portuguese coast (A and B). Each vertical histogram bar represents one image frame with fish visible. The top panel (A) indicates data for Synaphobranchus spp., the bottom panel (B) for the other taxa recorded. The most common taxa attending bait are indicated by solid bars; black bars indicate Mora moro, red bars Trachyrincus scabrus?. Less common visitation is marked by symbols; crosses indicate Hexanchus griseus?, open circles Deania sp., open triangles, unidentified sharks, and black solid diamonds Phycis sp. The bait was not completely consumed during the deployment. C) Numbers of Coryphaenoides armatus as a function of time (max number per 10 min interval) at 3400 m, Nazaré Canyon. Raw deployment data is represented by open circles and closed squares. The mean number of individuals for the two deployments is represented by the thin black line and the smoothed “shark’s fin” model fitted values (Priede et al. 1990) by the thick black line.

(following page)
Figure 5 Comparison of abundance estimates from towed gears and baited cameras, obtained at the same locations and weeks. Lines and the formulae below are least squares regression fits; Spearman correlations were used to determine the strength of the relationships. A) OTSB trawls in the Porcupine Seabight (solid circles), Porcupine Abyssal Plain (averages of several trawls, crosses) and Crozet Island (open triangle), plotted against AUDOS/ROBIO data \(y=0.97x\), correlation coefficient = 0.86, \(P = 0.01\), \(n = 8\). B) Camera sled data from the North Pacific (solid circles), plotted against Sprint video lander abundances estimates. \(y=1.24x\), correlation coefficient = 0.62, \(P = 0.02\), \(n = 14\). C) Campelen trawls on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge, plotted against ROBIO data \(y=-0.15x\), correlation coefficient = 0.02, \(P = 0.96\), \(n = 8\). Note that in Panels A and C the variation in abundance is due to spatial separation, whereas in Panel B the lander and camera sled estimates are all at the same location, but the pairs took place over a period of 15 years. (following page)